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ABSTRACT

Two concerns in education are student lack of motivation for achieving subject-matter knowledge and skills, and a high incidence of both disruptive and withdrawal behavior. The state of the art with respect to the motivational procedures teachers employ with students is in question. This paper attempts to answer by dealing with these related areas: (1) Is student motivation for achieving desired educational outcomes of concern to educators?: (2) Is current motivational theory adequate for explaining student motivation? Is it useful for increasing student motivation?: and (3) What kinds of research strategies are appropriate for formulating and validating procedures for increasing student motivation? It is indicated that many conditions of learning are related to consistently low educational achievement and disruptive student conduct. The suggestion is that the development and validation of motivational procedures in schools require problem-solving research in which researchers and practitioners together attempt to find ways of increasing motivation among particular students in particular schools. Other conditions of learning and teaching require research, along with motivation, because inadequacies in the school's curricular, instructional and advising arrangements and home-school relations are a major source of motivational problems.
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Motivational Procedures in School Settings [1, 2]

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What is the state of the art with respect to the motivational procedures that teachers employ with students? I shall attempt a partial answer to this question by dealing with three related areas:

1. Is student motivation for achieving desired educational outcomes of concern to educators?
2. Is current motivational theory adequate for explaining student motivation and also useful for increasing student motivation?
3. What kinds of research strategies are appropriate for formulating and validating procedures for increasing student motivation?

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1. Is student motivation of concern to educators?

Our mass media and professional journals contain many reports that indicate low student motivation for learning and a high incidence of disruptive aggressive behavior and withdrawal behavior. Formal reports indicate the same conditions. For example, the California Commission on the Reform of Intermediate and Secondary Education (Newcomer, 1975) identified the following conditions among the youth of California. Juvenile drug arrests from 1964 to 1973 increased from 2,000 to 42,000 per year. Approximately 15 percent of California's teenagers were believed to be infected with a venereal disease in 1973. In 1974, about 17 percent of all Grade 9 California students dropped out of high school before graduating, and in some city schools a 40 percent dropout rate was not uncommon. The median of California high school seniors in writing/language skills was at the 34th percentile. Approximately 45 percent of the entering freshmen at the University of California failed to pass the College Entrance Examination Board's English Competency Test in 1974. The entering University of California students represent the top 12 percent of their high school classes.

We would expect conditions like these to be a concern of teachers and that they would want assistance from university professors and others in ways of motivating students to learn subject matter knowledge and skills and also to achieve other desired education outcomes. Lehr (1979) conducted a study involving 404 teachers of 10 middle schools and junior high schools with enrollments ranging from 400 to 2,600 to

identify the in-service topics that they judged would be most beneficial to them. Techniques for motivating students was ranked first by the teachers. Other areas included ways of grouping students to personalize their instruction, developing skills in different modes of student evaluation, assessing students' minimal competencies in the basic skills, and procedures for reporting student progress.

From reports and studies such as these, we may infer that educators regard student lack of motivation for classroom learning and also student failure to conform to reasonable standards of conduct as one of the primary problems of education today, and particularly of secondary education.

2. Is current motivational theory adequate for explaining student motivation and also useful for increasing student motivation?

This question merits consideration, not only by the person who formulates a theory of motivation and indicates that it is applicable to the school setting, but also by all of us who have an interest in motivation in school settings. Hilgard (1964) expressed this idea as follows: "We believe that the scientific psychology of learning has the obligation to go all the way from theory to practice, using criticized data in every step."

The present status of motivational theory may be inferred from recent reviews of theory and research. In the 1978 Annual Review of Psychology, de Charms and Muir (1978) reviewed motivation theory and

also training programs. The training program receiving most attention was based on de Charms' (1976) theory of personal causation. The major constructs of this theory are origin behavior, or personal causation, and pawn behavior. The training program was carried out during a period of three years. It involved an initial residential workshop for the teachers who had the students in Grade 5, and an annual workshop thereafter for each new group of teachers of the same students as they proceeded through Grades 6, 7, and 8. In these workshops, the project staff developed training units for the students. The training units were designed to teach the students self-determination of goals and actions and also to set realistic goals. Competition and all forms of external reinforcers were avoided by the teachers.

The motivation and the academic achievements of the trained students were found to be higher than the motivation and the achievements of the control students. On the other hand, neither achievement motivation nor locus of control were differentiated between the experimental and the control groups.

Other studies reported by de Charms and Muir (1978) indicated that extrinsic negative reinforcers, including failure and reproof, and extrinsic emotionally-toned positive reinforcers, including praise, reduced initially intrinsically-motivated behavior of students. However, informational reinforcers did not have these effects and were not viewed as external reinforcers.

Concerning experimental methodology these reviewers called for research leading to practical applications as well as other research to achieve scientific understanding. The paucity of research directed toward practical ends was noted.

Brody (1980) reviewed the recently extended risk-taking model of Atkinson & Birch (1978), the revised social learning theory of Bandura (1977a, 1977b), intrinsic motivation of Deci (1975), achievement motivation of McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, and Lowell (1953), power motivation of McClelland (1979), and attribution theory of Weiner (1974, 1979). Brody analyzed the theories from the standpoint of whether there is evidence to support the idea that the cognitive processes of the individual change, influence, or control the individual's motivation and other emotional states. He concluded:

> . . . there is little current work dealing with the problem of the influence of motivation on the performance of cognitive tasks. Thus, the explosion of research in cognitive psychology has proceeded in relative isolation from research in motivation. In sum, the field of social motivation appears excessively fragmented, theoretically incoherent, and isolated from other specialties within psychology. (p. 165.)

One would infer from Brody's review and concluding remarks that current cognitive motivational theory is not adequate for explaining motivation and also has not been applied systematically to increasing motivation for school learning tasks. It is recognized that some motivational theorists might disagree with this assessment.

3. What kinds of research strategies are appropriate for generating procedures and knowledge for predicting and increasing student motivation?

I shall describe two studies in this area and then indicate the need for practical research as advocated by Schwab (1977). In the late 1960's, I started a programmatic research and development project called Individually Guided Motivation (Klausmeier, Jeter, Quilling, Frayer, & Allen, 1975). The research and development strategy involved identifying needs of teachers of inner-city schools for assistance in motivating children to learn basic skills in reading and arithmetic and also to assume more self-directedness and to engage in more prosocial behavior and less antisocial behavior. Four motivational-instructional procedures were developed to meet the needs. Controlled experiments were carried out in the schools prior to developing each procedure (Averhart, 1971; Gaa, 1970; Holland, Frayer, Sorenson, & Ghatala, 1970; Kennedy, 1968; Lamal, 1970; Marliave, 1971; and Marliave & Smith, 1971).

The four procedures were as follows: an adult, usually a volunteer, conducting individual reading conferences with students; the teacher carrying out conferences with an individual student or a small group of students to set goals related to classroom learning tasks; a child tutoring another child; and the teacher leading small-group conferences to aid students build self-directedness and prosocial behaviors. Each procedure incorporated the motivational principles of securing the learner's attention and focusing it on the conference activities, getting the learner to participate actively in the conference activities, reinforcing

desired behavior, and goal-setting at the end of the conference to guide the student's activities between the conferences (Klausmeier, et al., 1975). After the controlled experiments were run, films and printed materials describing each procedure were developed, tested in the field, and revised.

In the field test, each procedure was found to result in higher student motivation, higher educational achievement, or both (Frayer & Sorenson, 1971; Quilling, Fishbach, Rendfrey, & Frayer, 1971; Schwenn (Ghatala), Sorenson, & Bavry, 1970; Sorenson, Schwenn (Ghatala), & Bavry, 1970; and Stewart, Quilling, & Frayer, 1971). After the field testing and minor revision, the procedures were disseminated to practitioners in workshops held at various sites throughout the nation. The tutoring procedure and the adult-child reading conferences were adopted in a relatively large number of elementary schools and the other two were adopted in a lesser number. However, some of the schools discontinued a procedure after a few years, mainly because of the amount of teacher time required for it (Klausmeier, 1980).

I should like to turn now to a second area of research. In 1972, we started a four-year longitudinal study directed toward charting the course of cognitive development and identifying individual differences in rate of development during the school years, Grades 1-12 (Klausmeier & Allen 1978). As part of this study, we identified conditions within the individual student, the student's home and neighborhood environment, and the student's school environment that contributed to either very slow development of concepts, principles and problem-solving skills, or very rapid

development of the same outcomes. Two groups of the most rapid and the slowest developers were identified, one group at the end of Grade 6 and the other at the end of Grade 12. Variables that differentiated between the rapid and slow developers at the end of both Grade 6 and Grade 12 included IQ score, self-esteem, attitudes toward school, attitudes toward the curriculum, motivation, self-directedness of behavior, school absenteeism, grades made, amount of reading, hobbies, socio-economic status of parents, parental attitude towards school and education, parental expectations for the child, and the intellectual climate of the home (Klausmeier & Allen, 1978).

We hypothesized that many of the conditions associated with slow development are preventable if, starting during the elementary school years, changes can be made in the home and family situation; in the school curriculum and the instruction of the child; and in relations among parents, teachers, and the student. The changes to be made would result in higher student motivation, including more favorable attitudes toward the subject matter, the teacher, and school generally. To test these views, a doctoral study was conducted by Mize (1977).

The experimental treatment in the Mize study was a series of intervention procedures that involved the children, their parents, the children's teachers, the school guidance counselor, and the experimenter, who also was a school psychologist. The intervention, carried out during seven weeks, had four main aspects. (1) The parents attended three in-service sessions conducted by the guidance counselor and the experimenter. (2) There were weekly communications between the child's teacher and the

parents, including parent visits to the school. (3) Parents met with their child at least twice a week at home carrying out the adult-child conference in reading described earlier (Klausmeier, et. al., 1975). (4) The teachers carried out goal-setting conferences in reading with the child (Klausmeier, et al., 1975). The school guidance counselor coordinated the intervention procedures on a day-to-day basis, including the communications and other interactions between the school and the parents.

Thirty-four children in Grades 3 and 4 who were enrolled in four elementary schools were identified as having low motivation and slow cognitive development. Half of them were assigned randomly to the experimental group to receive the intervention procedures and the other half were assigned to a control group.

The intervention procedures resulted in more interactions between the teachers and parents and in more parent involvement in the child's educational and other activities in the home for the experimental group than for the control group. Results from structured interviews indicated that the parents' attitudes toward the child, their child's teacher, and the school improved markedly. Comparison of the pretest and posttest scores yielded statistically significant differences favoring the experimental group of children with regard to self-esteem; motivation to learn; attitudes toward learning, peers, and teacher authority and control; attitudes toward reading; and reading achievement itself. In fact, there was a phenomenal growth in reading of over 1.0 grade equivalent during the seven-week period.

The seven-week intervention was conducted in the spring of one school year. In October of the following school year, the students were given a different reading test of two relatively short parts. Although not statistically significant for either part of the test, the mean reading achievement of the experimental group on each part of the test was considerably higher than that of the control group.

The preceding programmatic research and development that resulted in the motivational procedures of Individually Guided Motivation and the intervention experiment, designed to change conditions within the learner, the school, and the home, have some of the attributes of the practical research strategy recently advocated by Schwab (1977).

He referred to the practical mode of research as a complex discipline that is radically different from the theoretic. The main features of the practical mode are that the source of the problem to be resolved is the extant situation itself. The practical research is carried out in an interactive, or cooperative, arrangement between the researcher and the problematic situations. The results of practical research are not expected to be transferrable to other situations without some further research. The primary end of practical research is situationally specific decisions and actions. However, the application of an extant theory or a combination of theories may be tested by this research strategy; also a new or novel principle for explaining, predicting, or controlling may be derived.

Schubert (1980) elaborated the practical approach in some detail, and indicated that difficulty might be experienced in proceeding beyond its present embryonic stage in educational research because of the institutionalization of the theoretic by the educational research community. It

would appear, however, that the practical mode of research, and also replication of research, are essential for finding solutions to the many acute and continuing problems of motivation, particularly in our secondary schools.

I should like to conclude by indicating that many conditions of learning, including motivational, are related to the consistently low educational achievement of many students and to disruptive student conduct that makes teaching and learning relatively impossible in many classes today. At the high school level particularly, many changes in the curricular-instructional-advising arrangements are needed. The four most important are personalizing the instructional-advising process; planning, monitoring, and evaluating an individual educational program with each normally developing student each semester in a manner similar to that carried out in individual educational programming with students who have a handicapping condition; providing curricular-instructional arrangements that enable a considerable number of high school students to engage in experiential learning, including work, off the school site, and thereby also to engage in less formal study in regular classes; and involving the student's parents in educational planning with the student and the student's teacher advisor (Klausmeier, 1980).

Until conditions such as these are arranged in junior and senior high schools, it is probable that the incidence of highly disruptive student behavior and low motivation for school learning tasks will

remain high, regardless of what might be attempted to deal with student motivation directly. In line with the practical research mode, it will be necessary for many researchers to carry out intensive longitudinal research with a few schools if we are to make real progress in identifying motivational procedures that teachers can employ effectively.

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